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ABSTRACT

The delivery and content of training for teachers and volunteer instructors in adult basic education (ABE) and English as a Second Language (ESL) were documented in a study. Two sources of information were the research literature and extant data from states on training activities. Findings indicated that training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors was influenced by factors related to ABE and ESL instruction. Section 353 of the Adult Education Act was the primary source of funding for training. Training services were provided by state, regional, and local agencies, which offered varied training activities. Many states relied on multiple training formats. Single workshops and single conferences were the primary method for training, even though "one-shot" staff development experiences were not as effective as longer-term multiple-session approaches. Highlighted features of effective training programs showed that they: are based on systematically identified needs, involve teacher participants in planning and decision making, maintain a positive climate, show evidence of systematic decision making, reflect up-to-date knowledge, and reflect continuity. Two categories of content for training were identified. Subject matter content should include basic skills, higher order skills, and second language acquisition. Pedagogical content as it related specifically to teaching ABE and ESL participants was necessary. (151 references) (YLB)

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STUDY OF ABE/ESL INSTRUCTOR TRAINING APPROACHES

THE DELIVERY AND CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR ADULT EDUCATION TEACHERS AND VOLUNTEER INSTRUCTORS

PELAVIN ASSOCIATES, INC.
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THE DELIVERY AND CONTENT OF TRAINING FOR ADULT EDUCATION TEACHERS AND VOLUNTEER INSTRUCTORS

July 1991

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Inadequate preparation of adult education teachers is generally considered to be a fundamental weakness of ABE and ESL programs (Foster, 1989; Bliss, 1988; Kazemek, 1988; Harman, 1985; Kavale & Lindsay, 1977). The minimal training provided for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors consists largely of voluntary attendance at workshops, conferences or seminars. At best, adult education programs usually offer one or two half-days per year of training, and much of that time is devoted to administrative concerns and procedures or to motivational presentations. In addition, programs are not likely to offer release time or monetary incentives for staff to participate in training activities (Kazemek, 1988).

The current status of ABE and ESL teacher and volunteer instructor training has been summed up by Foster (1988, p. 6):

> Programs are operating on shoestring budgets. In most cases, programs are not required to provide training for their staffs. The demand for literacy services is compelling; time-off and resources devoted to training would require reductions in service, so program administrators and founders choose to expand services before providing training to service delivery personnel. Inservice training and skill enhancement are most often done on the instructor's own time and expense...adult literacy instructors (still) tend to be chosen for their characteristics as concerned, caring individuals more than for specific instructional skill or training."

Although empirical data are not available, it is considered likely that a relationship exists between training and improved learning gains in adult students (Foster, 1988). States report that volunteers would be able to develop more professionally and to understand their role and the role of others in a given organization and program if regular training was provided (OVAE, 1989; Pacey et al., 1986).

Unfortunately, there is a lack of comprehensive and comparable data to answer such basic questions about ABE and ESL teacher and volunteer instructor training as: Who trains ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors? How often is training provided? Who decides on the content of training? Although Federal monies have been available to states for teacher training for approximately 15 years, staff development programs funded with these monies have not been examined in a systematic manner (Crocker, 1988). Instead, the field has generally relied on sporadic and incomplete program reports, graduate student studies, self-promotional articles, and word-of-mouth information.

Study Objectives

This report summarizes the available information about the delivery and content of ABE and ESL teacher and volunteer instructor training. The objective of this study is to provide an overview of what is known about these training activities on a national basis and not to make state-by-state comparisons. The report is part of a "Study of ABE and ESL Instructor Training Approaches" funded by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Vocational and Adult Education (OVAE).[1] Issues addressed in this report are:

- Factors influencing ABE and ESL training;
- Patterns for the delivery of training; and
- Content areas for teacher and volunteer instructor training.

[1] Information from this report will also be used for other research activities and products of the broader project, including: site visits to successful training programs, recommendations of material development needs, and development of training materials.

Sources of Information

This report draws on two sources of information: the research literature and extant data from states on training activities. A comprehensive review of the literature was conducted to identify information on teacher and volunteer instructor training activities in ABE and ESL. Sources included periodical indices, ERIC documents, OVAE and Department of Education reports, doctoral dissertations, and selected Master's theses.

Data about the delivery and content of training are based on profiles of each state's major training activities for ABE and ESL teachers and ABE volunteer instructors. These profiles have been prepared previously as part of the "Study of ABE/ESL Instructor Training Approaches." Sources of information for the profiles were:

- Office of Vocational and Adult Education files describing training activities funded through Section 353 of the Adult Education Act;
- State reports and descriptions from state directors of adult education and state staff responsible for Section 353-funded activities; and
- Reports and descriptions of training activities requested from directors of local training programs.

Limitations of Data

The information presented in this report is limited by the dearth of both research and data about the delivery and content of training for ABE and ESL teachers and ABE volunteer instructors. Few studies have been conducted on these issues and the available research is generally descriptive rather than empirical. For this study, data collection restrictions prohibited a survey of training providers where specific and direct questions could be asked about the delivery and content of ABE and ESL training. Therefore, most information on training services is based on extant data from state and local program reports and descriptions of training services. Information about training activities funded by individual local adult education programs is generally not included in the profiles and therefore is not reflected in this report.

Organization of Report

The remainder of this chapter presents a profile of ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors and state training requirements, and then discusses factors affecting training activities. Chapter II presents information about the delivery of inservice and preservice training. Chapter III contains information about the content of training services for ABE and ESL teachers and ABE volunteer instructors. The fourth and final chapter presents the study's conclusions.

Profile of ABE and ESL Teachers and Volunteer Instructors

Instructional staff at ABE and ESL programs typically consist of part-time teachers and volunteers. ABE and ESL teachers are generally characterized as highly transitory, often isolated, and frequently elementary or secondary teachers working part-time in adult education programs. Volunteer instructors in ABE and ESL programs are typically employed full-time in other positions and although generally well-educated, are not professional educators or experienced in adult education.

Adult Education Teachers

The profile of adult education teachers varies from state to state and within states as one moves from urban to rural areas or to areas with specific populations of adult students. Whether in the far west with heavy concentrations of ESL and migrant farm workers, in large cities with high concentrations of unemployed, homeless, and disenfranchised youth, or through sparsely settled mid-western farm communities or Appalachian rural areas, teachers are reportedly almost as varied as are the student populations.

No information has been systematically gathered or reported on the characteristics of ABE and ESL teachers. Harman notes (1985, p. 29): "In adult literacy programs, the range of qualifications of the instructors currently is very wide. Some have received a certain amount of

training and are certified. Some have been certified as school teachers and apply teaching skills that are inappropriate. Others have no training at all and are not properly equipped for the role." Yet there are some characteristics that tend to set adult education teachers apart from their elementary and secondary counterparts.

The majority of adult education teachers are likely to be white females, whether paid or volunteer. For example, a 1989 study in Texas found 77 percent of paid teachers or volunteers were female and 55 percent were white (Texas A&M University, 1989). Thirty-four percent of Texas adult education teachers were Hispanic.

ABE and ESL teachers tend to be part-time employees of adult education programs. They are usually paid on an hourly basis and typically do not receive benefits. In fact, up to 90 percent are so characterized (Crocker, 1988; Foster, 1988; Jones, 1987; Harman, 1985; Gredc & Friedlander, 1981). A survey of ABE teachers found that most states had difficulty even estimating the number of their teachers due to the large number of part-time instructors. In North Carolina, 65 percent of the programs surveyed reported having no full-time teachers on their staff (Hughes & Brannon, 1988). Hawaii funded its first full-time ABE staff position in 1989.

By necessity, most ABE and ESL teachers also work full-time at another job or are homemakers teaching adults when time permits. A large number of adult education teachers teach in secondary or elementary classrooms (Gadsden, 1988; Fingeret et al., 1985; Young et al., 1980). ABE teachers in Mississippi, for example, were found to be primarily young females who teach full-time in elementary schools (Camperell et al., 1983). Foster (1988) notes that approximately 60 percent are full-time elementary or secondary school teachers. The problem with this situation is that while full-time elementary and secondary school teachers may be highly

educated, they are not necessarily knowledgeable about either adult characteristics that influence learning or teaching procedures that are appropriate for adults.

Adult Education Volunteer Instructors

Data on use and training of ABE volunteer instructors are virtually non-existent. The exceptions are information from OVAE and organizations established for the sole purpose of offering volunteer tutorial services, such as those provided by the Literacy Volunteers of America or Laubach Literacy. Both of those programs have highly centralized and elaborately developed training programs.

Today's volunteers are different from those of a decade ago. They are more often represented by fully employed members of the workforce. In addition, men are increasingly beginning to volunteer as tutors. Finally, a younger group of volunteers now complements the mature female volunteers who, although still active, now "seek more challenge and responsibility in their volunteer assignments" (Pacey et al., 1986, p. 8).

Extensive Use of Volunteers

Volunteers are used extensively in adult education programs, primarily as tutors, and more often in local literacy programs operating at beginning (grades 0-4) levels. Almost two-thirds of volunteers in 1988 served as individual tutors in basic literacy and ESL classes. Approximately 38 percent served in such supportive roles as administration, outreach and recruitment, teacher aides, counseling, child care, and transportation (OVAE, 1989).

In 1988, volunteers accounted for between 25 and 75 percent of total adult education staff members in each state (OVAE, 1988). However, these numbers included volunteers that were used in non-instructional activities. Findings from state reports (excluding California) revealed a 119 percent increase in the number of volunteers used in state-administered adult education programs over a four-year span. Between 1985 and 1988 the number of volunteers more than

doubled, from 34,500 to 77,000 (OVAE, 1989). The greatest use of volunteers occurred in five states -- New York, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Kentucky, and Tennessee -- which accounted for 41 percent of the volunteers nationwide. This extensive use of volunteers in ABE and ESL programs is supported by other studies. For example, one national survey found approximately two-thirds of adult education programs used volunteers (94 percent of adult literacy programs and 51 percent of ABE programs) (NCES, 1986).

Some Concerns About Volunteers

Using volunteer instructors in ABE and ESL programs does not receive unanimous support. Whereas volunteer tutors are generally well-educated, they are not professional adult educators or literacy professionals. Although school teachers and those studying adult education at the university level are likely to be well-read in the professional literature, the same is not expected of volunteer tutors (Kazemek, 1988).

There is some concern that volunteers are often not as committed as paid teachers to their assignments, and some teachers are concerned that agencies will begin to use volunteers to replace them so that money can be saved for other purposes (Pacey et al., 1986). Kazemek (1988) questions the use of volunteers in the belief that they and the tutorial process may perpetuate stereotypes of the adult illiterate. At worst, he suggests, "...it can foster unequal relationships between adults: the tutor is the knowing teacher while the learner is in a dialogic relationship; such programs too often reinforce the misgivings that many adult students have about their own abilities" (pp. 474-75).

State Certification Requirements

On the whole, teachers of adults are required to meet less stringent certification standards than are elementary and secondary education teachers. Whereas many states require five years of

college education to certify elementary or secondary teachers, adult education certification requirements are minimal or non-existent (Foster, 1988).

State requirements that adult education teachers be certified generally take the form of certification in elementary or secondary education. Additional methods of ABE certification reported by Cope (1984) are:

- A combination of experience, degree, and/or coursework;
- Credit-based degree plus completion of ABE courses;
- An emergency certificate;
- Endorsement of specialized adult education credit courses; and
- Variations of teaching certificates.

Extant data on certification, obtained for this study from states, support the finding that certification in elementary and secondary education is the primary certification requirement (14 states) in ABE and ESL education (see Figure I-1). Only 11 states have certification requirements that include special preparation or training in adult education. Twenty-five states do not report any certification requirements.

Inservice Training Requirements

Twelve states require some type of inservice training according to extant data obtained from states. There is, however, no consistent pattern in these training requirements which range from as few as four hours of preservice and four hours of inservice to 50 hours of staff development annually.

Many local ABE and ESL programs require their teachers to receive inservice training when the state does not have such a requirement. Even when there are state inservice requirements, local requirements may exceed those of the state. Collecting data about local program inservice training requirements, however, was beyond the scope of this project.

FIGURE I-1

States' ABE/ESL Certification Requirements

	States	Percent
Adult Certification Required	11	24
K-12 or Secondary Certification Required	14	27
No Certification Required	25	49
TOTAL	50	100

Inservice training and staff development programs have been suggested as satisfactory alternatives to ABE certification (Cope, 1984). Draper (1986) tends to agree with this conclusion and states further: "The certification of teachers does not necessarily result in better teaching or a more sensitive interaction between the teacher and the adult learner" (p. 24). He suggests instead that ongoing staff development become a fundamental part of ABE and ESL programs to ensure that teachers and volunteer instructors are adequately trained.

Factors Affecting Training Activities

Despite consensus among researchers, practitioners, and policymakers that the lack of training is a problem for the adult education field, providing training opportunities is not an easy task. A number of factors influence the delivery of training, including limited financial resources, the organization of services, the lack of a research base, and minimal state and local policies and guidelines regarding certification.

Limited Financial Resources

Since its passage in 1966, the Adult Education Act has been the Federal Government's primary mechanism for helping states and localities address the problem of adult illiteracy. It represents the main source of funding for ABE and ESL instructional services. However, limited funds are generally available in support of adult education services, and even fewer dollars are available for training. Currently, the Federal Government supports training under Section 353 of the Adult Education Act, which allows states to spend up to 10 percent of their state grant -- $15.8 million during FY 1990 -- on special projects, including teacher and volunteer instructor training. Section 353 represents the major funding source for ABE and ESL training activities (Kutner et al., 1990).

Organization of Services

The nature of the ABE/ESL system, specifically the manner in which instructional services are organized, directly affects the delivery and availability of training services for teachers and volunteer instructors. Adult education programs are organized to be responsive to the needs of participants who have usually not succeeded in traditional education settings. ABE and ESL services are typically provided in the afternoon or the evening with students generally attending classes part-time (Kutner et al., 1990). The part-time nature of adult education services means that only part-time teachers are usually needed. With most adult education teachers employed full-time at other jobs, it is difficult to schedule training services that won't conflict with adult education instructional services or the full-time jobs of the teacher.

Lack of Research Base

The lack of an appropriate research base also complicates attempts to provide appropriate training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. The field of adult education has had difficulty establishing itself as a priority or viable domain of scientific inquiry. Only a small

number of researchers examine issues in the field as their primary area of study. While the multidisciplinary nature of the field has enabled it to draw in researchers from other disciplines (e.g., reading and psychology), the field continues to suffer from the perception that "there is no need for theory" (Cross, 1986, p. 221). As a result, there have been few systematic and coordinated approaches to issues such as teacher training, research, and practice (Courtney, 1986).

High Rate of Teacher Turnover

Because adult education teaching jobs are generally part-time and do not provide benefits, teachers generally do not make a long-term commitment to adult education programs, and turnover of both teachers and administrators is usually high (Kazemek, 1988; Harman, 1985; Kavale & Lindsay, 1977). This is especially true of ESL teachers who may lack an understanding of second-language learning problems and the needs of a culturally-diverse adult population (Criden, 1979). The high rate of turnover burdens local adult education programs which must offer introductory training almost continuously.

Lack of State Certification Requirements

Unlike elementary and secondary education in which teachers must meet state certification requirements before they are allowed into the classroom, few states have specific certification requirements for adult education teachers. When states require adult education teachers to be certified, it generally consists of certification in elementary or secondary education (Cope, 1984). Although state certification requirements for adult education teachers would not ensure a well-prepared teaching force, the absence of such requirements probably reduces demand for training services, especially since adult education programs are typically under-funded and employ part-time teachers who generally are not reimbursed for time spent at training.

Summary

ABE and ESL programs are typically staffed by part-time teachers and volunteer instructors who are usually paid on an hourly basis and do not receive benefits. Most also work full-time at another job (usually as an elementary or secondary school teacher) or are homemakers who teach adults when time permits. Information about volunteer instructors is harder to collect. Volunteers account for between 25 percent and 75 percent of total adult education staff members in each state and are most frequently used as tutors, usually in local literacy programs operating at beginning levels (i.e., grades 0 to 4). There is some indication that today's adult education volunteers are increasingly fully employed members of the workforce. The percentage of male volunteers is reportedly increasing and the average age of volunteers is declining.

Adult education teachers generally have less stringent state certification requirements than do their counterparts in elementary and secondary education. In fact, when there are certification requirements for adult education teachers, they generally consist of elementary or secondary education certification. Despite the general absence of state certification requirements, some states and local programs have inservice training requirements. A number of sources consider such requirements to be a satisfactory alternative to traditional state certification.

Providing training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors is influenced by a number of factors related to ABE and ESL instruction. These include limited financial resources and the lack of sufficient funds to provide training, the part-time nature of adult education services, the lack of a research base, a high rate of teacher turnover, and lack of state certification requirements.

CHAPTER II

DELIVERY OF INSERVICE AND PRESERVICE TRAINING SERVICES

Training for teachers and volunteer instructors of adults is a relatively recent concept. The Federal Government did not support training until 1969 when some regional institutes were directly funded with Federal monies. In 1975, funding was removed from direct Federal control and allocated to states for "special experimental projects and teacher training programs, specifically, staff development programs" (Crocker, 1988). Beginning in 1978, the Adult Education Act was amended to require not less than 10 percent of state grants be spent for special experimental projects and teacher training programs. Currently, the Federal Government supports training under Section 353 of the Adult Education Act, which allows states to spend up to 10 percent of their state grant on special projects, including teacher and volunteer instructor training. The recently enacted National Literacy Act, which reauthorized the Adult Education Act, increased to 15 percent the percentage of a state's grant which may be spent on special projects and requires two-thirds of these funds be spent on teacher training.

The delivery of training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors is examined in this chapter. First, an overview of Section 353-funded training is presented. Then the delivery of training services currently provided is examined from three different perspectives:

- The types of organizations actually providing training;
- The types of training services -- preservice and inservice; and
- Training formats for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors.

Third, the evaluation of training services is discussed. Finally, information from grades K-12 which may inform the design of effective adult education training delivery systems is presented.

Training Activities for Teachers and Volunteer Instructors

Section 353 funds support statewide, regional, and local training organizations (see Figure II-1).[1] Twenty-seven states distribute Section 353 training funds primarily to state-level entities such as training centers and 24 states distribute these funds primarily to local or regional organizations. Many organizations receiving Section 353 funds also receive funds from state and local sources.

Statewide efforts have been criticized as being too generalized and it has been suggested that the design and operation of training activities should be placed in the hands of local adult education programs and teachers. In fact, a number of the larger states decentralize their training services (e.g., Massachusetts) and some of the larger local adult education programs are also beginning to develop their own inservice training activities (Leahy, 1986).

FIGURE II-1

State-Sponsored Training, Section 353 Disbursements

	States*	Percent
Dispersed primarily to state-level entities	27	53
Dispersed primarily to local or regional entities	24	47
TOTAL	51	100

*Some states include both state-directed and local or regionally-directed activities. In those few instances, the states were placed in the category where training most often occurs -- e.g., Connecticut training is primarily at the state level but it also disperses some funding to local and regional areas as well; Connecticut is placed in the first category above. On the other hand, Wisconsin does both but has primarily local or regional training, and is placed in the second category above.

[1] The source for most of the information about training activities is the State Profiles Report prepared as part of the "Study of ABE/ESL Instructor Training Approaches." That report is based on extant data such as state and local program reports and descriptions of training services.

Training for Volunteers

Many Section 353-funded training projects serve volunteer instructors. Sixty of the more than 400 Section 353-funded training projects during FY 1988 included training for volunteers (OVAE, 1989). Twenty-eight of these projects focused on ABE volunteer training and 32 projects offered volunteer training as part of their overall training activities. In all, more than $1.5 million was invested in the projects by 25 states during 1988 (OVAE, 1989).[2] One state -- Nebraska -- developed a book entitled, Using the All-Volunteer Concept in Adult Basic Education to Serve the Hard to Reach Student. The publication includes topics such as recruitment, interviewing, training, orientation, and evaluation.

According to extant data obtained for this study, 25 states support volunteer training activities while another 18 states indicate that such training is available through various organizations including community-based organizations, libraries, and volunteer literacy providers (see Figure II-2).

FIGURE II-2

State and Other Support of Volunteer Training

	States	Percent
Reported state support of volunteer training	25	49
Reported support of volunteer training through other sources (CBOs, libraries, colleges, LVA, LLA, etc.)	18	35
No mention of volunteer training in documents provided this project	8	16
TOTAL	51	100

[2] A list of these projects was developed by OVAE and is available through VOLUNTEERS: A Compilation of Section 353 Volunteer Literacy Programs for 1988.

Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA) and Laubach Literacy Action (LLA) are the primary organizations providing training services for volunteer tutors. Fourteen states report that they have some involvement with these organizations -- seven states with LVA, four with LLA and an additional three states indicated that they used a combination of these organizations.

Training Providers

Nationwide, there are four main types of adult education instructor training providers: (1) four-year colleges and universities, (2) state-supported training centers, (3) local or regional agencies (including adult education programs, community colleges and community-based organizations), and (4) professional organizations. Existing data offered by states indicate that the majority of adult education training is delivered by the first three types of providers, and that no one of these three types appears to predominate (see Figure II-3).

FIGURE II-3

Types of Providers of Adult Education Instructor Training Employed in Different States Nationwide

	States
Four-Year Colleges or Universities	22
State-Supported Training Centers	21
Local Agencies (including Community Colleges and Community-Based Organizations)	25
Professional Organizations	5
Total States/Territories Queried	51

NOTE: These figures include reports from states that employ more than one category of training provider, so the total of responses is greater than 51.

Four-Year Colleges or Universities

Data provided by the states indicate that 22 states use four-year colleges or universities as a major source of adult education teacher and volunteer instructor training. Seven of these 22 states primarily use four-year colleges or universities, six rely upon these institutions in combination with state training centers, eight use four-year colleges and universities in combination with local agencies, and one depends upon these institutions and professional organizations. Eleven of the 22 states depending upon four-year colleges or universities for adult education instructor training report that the organizations are contracted to deliver various forms of training including summer institutes, noncredit courses, or workshops.

Eleven states report that MA programs in adult education are offered by colleges or universities. Since few states require that adult education instructors receive formal training, some sources suggest that many of these graduate programs and courses are designed for administrative careers in adult education, and that only a few offer adult education instructor training certificates (Parker, 1987; Ingham & Hawks, 1981). Such graduate programs tend to exhibit a heavy focus on administrative and planning skills:

> ... graduate students, in the course of earning a master's or doctoral degree, will be required to undertake courses on program planning or development, evaluation of adult education, design and management of instruction, organization and administration of adult education, and staff development and training. Courses concerned with the development of these programmatic, instructional and administrative skills are indeed the staple diet of the graduate adult education curriculum (Brookfield, 1985, p. 288).

It has also been reported that few four-year colleges and universities are well-staffed by teacher training faculty who have extensive knowledge of adult education. Cranney & Hollingsworth (1986, p. 6) note that

> ... part of the problem is that few colleges of education have teacher trainers who are knowledgeable and experienced in this field. While teacher trainers in elementary and secondary reading are in good supply, competent adult teacher trainers qualified to serve on university faculties are not.

State-Supported Training Centers or Projects

Twenty-one states support training centers or projects that provide training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Most of these centers are at least partially supported with Section 353 funds. One source suggests that a substantial portion of adult education instructor training and training of trainers nationwide is provided through such centers or projects (Crocker, 1988).

Nine of the states that support training centers or projects rely primarily on such entities for training, six states use training centers as well as four-year colleges and universities, five rely on state training centers as well as local agencies, and one state employs state training centers, local agencies, and professional organizations.

In all states using training centers, there appear to be efforts to deliver training on statewide, regional, and local bases. Many states, particularly the larger ones, support multiple centers and sites to focus on local and regional staff development needs. For example:

- Illinois sponsors three regional Adult Education Service Centers and one statewide ESL Service Center. The Centers may be operated by local education agencies, consortia of agencies, or institutions of higher education, and each is responsible for staff development activities at the local and regional levels.

- California supports several adult education staff development centers or projects through Federal funds, including an Outreach and Technical Assistance Network (OTAN), an ESL Instructor Institute, and an ABE Institute.

Local or Regional Agencies

Local and regional agencies, including adult education programs, community colleges, community-based organizations, and libraries, represent a third major deliverer of adult education instructor training. According to data from the states, 25 states support local or regional agencies to provide training activities for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors -- more than the 22 states which rely upon four-year colleges or universities. Other sources also indicate that

many local or regional agencies, especially adult education programs, have developed their own training programs for teachers and volunteers (Fellenz & Conti, 1985; Jones & Lowe, 1985).

Many of the states that employ local or regional agencies for training also call upon other types of providers to train adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Of the 25 states relying on local or regional agencies for training, 11 rely primarily on such agencies, eight use a combination of these agencies and four-year colleges and universities, five employ local or regional agencies and state training centers, and one relies upon a combination of local and regional agencies, state training centers, and professional organizations.

Professional Organizations

National organizations of adult education practitioners, regional affiliates, and state-level affiliates also play a significant role in delivering adult education instructor training to their members throughout the nation. Among those organizations are the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), the Adult Basic Education Commission of AAACE (COABE), Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and the National Alliance of Community-Based Organizations (NACBO). These organizations typically sponsor annual national conferences, special institutes, publications, and other dissemination activities that represent an important source of ongoing professional development for adult education instructors. Many of these national organizations also have regional or state-level affiliates which provide similar professional services to specific geographical regions.

Five states provided data indicating that they contract with professional organizations to provide specifically-focused adult education instructor staff development services. Three of the five states rely primarily on professional organizations for adult education instructor staff development, one employs both professional organizations and four-year college and universities,

and one relies on a combination of professional organizations, four-year colleges and universities, and state training centers.

Level of Training Services

Preservice and inservice training are the two basic types of training services available in adult education. Extant data provided by the states indicate that inservice training is provided more widely. All 50 states and the District of Columbia support some type of inservice training, while only 11 states provide preservice training.

Preservice Training

Preservice training in elementary and secondary education is provided by an institution of higher education before a teacher is eligible to teach in public schools. In adult education, however, preservice training is provided in a less formal manner and is usually considered to be any training received before an instructor begins teaching. States do not identify preservice training as a widespread practice. Few institutions of higher education offer a teaching degree or certificate in adult education, and few states require training or certification prior to engaging in adult education instruction.

It has been suggested that many local adult education programs either offer or make arrangements for new instructors to receive preservice training (Hall, 1986; Miller & Verduin, 1979). Such training for new teachers may be included as inservice training by states. There is some indication in the literature, however, that many of the short preservice training courses provided by local adult education programs are inadequate (Harman, 1985).

Preservice Training for Volunteers

Preservice training for volunteer instructors may be provided by local adult education programs or by local literacy councils affiliated with LLA and LVA. It has been reported that the

only preparation most volunteers receive is 14 to 20 hours of preservice orientation offered through informal meetings, gatherings for group discussions, or lectures, and that adult education programs generally do not have minimum education requirements for volunteers (Foster, 1988). Most volunteers at LLA and LVA programs receive between 12 and 18 hours of training. In addition, they often receive assistance in using the materials which the local program has recommended (OVAE, 1989).

Inservice Training

Inservice training in adult education is of greater importance than in elementary and secondary education because of the lack of formal preservice training opportunities available for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Local programs often provide inservice training through on-site workshops, regional workshops sponsored by state-funded projects or professional organizations, and attendance at conferences.

In the absence of formal preservice training, one source suggests that such inservice training should result in two major outcomes: (1) instructors should understand the expectations and nature of their students, colleagues, and program administrators; and (2) they should feel comfortable functioning as facilitators of learning (Burley, 1985). The next chapter of this report describes the content of inservice training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors.

Inservice Training for Volunteers

Inservice training is reported to be sporadic or non-existent for most volunteer instructors (Foster, 1988). Local adult education programs indicate that they have limited funds to support volunteer inservice training activities and few professional organizations support such training.

Training Delivery Formats

Inservice training for ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors is provided through different formats. The majority of adult education teacher and volunteer instructor training, as reported by extant data from states and local programs, is delivered through single workshops or conferences (see Figure II-4). Many states, however, rely on multiple formats of delivery. Newer and potentially promising delivery formats seem to be emerging, while still other training delivery modes are suggested by the literature.

"Traditional" Delivery Formats: Single Workshops and Conferences

Single workshops and single conferences are the primary format for the delivery of adult education instructor training. Single workshops are used in 43 of the states and an individual conference format is featured in 31 states.

Workshops usually consist of a three- or four-hour session offered at the local adult education program, a training center or at some other location. The content of such training is usually focused on a specific topic, such as classroom management, and participants generally do not have the opportunity to receive follow-up training. Trainers at these sessions may be professional trainers who are employees of a training center, independent consultants, or adult education teachers.

Conferences are another frequent format for inservice training. They often consist of workshops and plenary sessions on various topics. Examples of conferences are state-sponsored day long events for adult education teachers, which may be held on a statewide or regional basis, and meetings of professional associations such as AAACE, COABE and TESOL.

These traditional formats for staff development delivery persist and predominate despite the literature cited in other sections of this report suggesting that single, "one-shot" staff development experiences are not as effective as longer-term, multiple-session approaches that

FIGURE II-4

Frequency of Various Delivery Formats for Adult Education Instructor Training Nationwide

	States
Single workshops	43
Conferences	31
Workshop series	14
Peer coaching	12
Coursework	12
Teleconference/video	8
Mentoring	5
Total states represented in this summary	50

NOTE: These figures represent responses from states that employ more than one mode of delivery, so the total of responses is greater than 50.

enable practitioners to acquire new concepts and skills, to practice them, and to receive feedback.

Other "Traditional" Delivery Formats: Workshop Series, Institutes and Coursework

Training delivery formats which may offer greater promise of effectiveness than single sessions are workshop series, institutes and university coursework. In 14 states, training is provided through a series of training workshop sessions, and in 12 states through university coursework.

Workshop series usually involve a sequenced group of three- or four-hour training sessions with each session drawing upon prior training. Institutes usually include full-day training over a short period of time (e.g., five days during the summer) and may be followed up by one or more workshops during the year. Coursework involves a weekly or monthly class that is offered through a four-year college or university.

These formats all include an ongoing effort which allows participants the opportunity to practice what they have learned and then receive additional training. When training goes beyond "one-shot" workshops there is a greater likelihood to follow-up on what has been taught previously to ensure that knowledge and skills that have been learned are transferred to the classroom. Although extant data regarding the effectiveness of these approaches were not offered by the states, these approaches reflect recent trends in the K-12 staff development literature. It will be important to track the development of these approaches as they are further tested and evaluated.

Formats Emerging from the Literature: Self-Directed Learning, Peer Coaching, and Action Research

During recent years, teachers have become more creative and assertive in addressing their own learning-for-teaching needs both in groups and as individuals. Some ways in which teachers are actively involved in training activities are through self-directed learning, peer coaching, and action research. These offer promising formats for providing training to adult education teachers and volunteer instructors.

Self-Directed Learning

One staff development delivery approach that emerges from a review of the literature is self-directed learning for adult educators (Smith & Bowes, 1986; Bowes, 1982). This method involves the adult education teacher or volunteer instructor determining the areas in which he or she would like to receive training. Although self-directed learning is not mentioned in the

existing data provided by states and local programs, researchers maintain that those concepts should be applied in training adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Such an approach is a rational outcome of the development and wide acceptance of the use of self-directed learning for adult learners that has emerged over the past decade or more.

One self-directed ABE staff development project reported the following successful outcomes for 10 of 19 participants who completed the project (Smith & Bowes, 1986):

- Settling on an interesting and useful topic;
- Availability of assistance in getting started from the initial workshop;
- Obtaining useful feedback from fellow participants and facilitators; and
- Having concrete administrative support.

As a result of the project, the ABE participants reportedly have developed a better understanding of themselves as learners, and are better able to take risks without worrying about negative consequences.

One method of promoting self-directed learning is through special interest groups. Various special interest groups have formed, either under the auspices of professional associations and other organizations, or in response to the initiatives of small teacher groups with common concerns. The Center for Applied Research and Development at George Mason University (CARD), for example, has invited teachers and others to join networks based on their professional roles (one for teachers, another for principals, etc.). Forums have focused on topics of mutual interest. A forum can result from any theme a group of teachers wishes to explore on an ongoing basis (e.g., schools and families, middle school issues, and technology).

Beyond the formation of teacher interest and support groups, an important area of focus during the 1980s was the assistance that teachers could provide to each other in direct classroom instruction. Consistent with the theme of "teachers teaching teachers," there was increased

emphasis on peer observation, peer evaluation, and peer coaching. Peer coaching, in particular, became a topic of national interest fueled in part by the work of Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers.

Peer Coaching

Peer coaching is based on the assumption that in order to implement a new skill effectively, a teacher must have repeated demonstrations while in training and, eventually, repeated opportunities to practice in a supportive environment. Only in this manner, according to Joyce and Showers (1984), will teachers acquire the "intellectual scaffolding" necessary to use the skills or knowledge learned appropriately and effectively. Peer coaching programs in follow-up to workshops and training sessions have proven effective not only in helping teachers master particular skills but in providing the support systems necessary to facilitate transfer from the training setting to the classroom. As Joyce and Showers (1984) explain, peer coaching has a variety of benefits:

> When a group of four to six teachers observes each other regularly, they not only give technical feedback to each other, they can receive it vicariously while watching others on the team provide it. Among them, they will also produce a number of fine practices that constitute further demonstrations and from which they can obtain ideas for maximizing their use of the model (p. 20).

In addition to peer coaching and other proactive staff development activities which can be pursued with their colleagues, teachers may engage in professional growth on an individual basis. Action research is a mechanism of independent study in areas that instructors have identified themselves as important directions for expansion and growth.

Action Research

Another promising delivery approach for adult education instructor training is the area of action research, which focuses on the "teacher as researcher." Through action research, teachers identify questions that interest them and plan for and conduct systematic inquiry in their own

teaching environments as they work with their own students. They keep careful records of their observations for specified periods pertaining to the progress of particular learners using particular materials, or in response to particular strategies or innovations. The information and insights gathered through this process are used by teacher-researchers to improve their own practice and/or to share with others.

An action research approach to staff development is being discussed primarily in the literature of K-12 staff development, but it would appear to be equally promising when applied to the context of adult educators (Oja & Smulyan, 1989; Mohr & MacLean, 1987). The question is often asked whether or not action research is "good" research. It must be remembered that action research is conducted for much more restricted purposes than most "academic" research and therefore must be judged by somewhat different standards. Some of the usual quality control issues that are of paramount importance in most academic research (e.g., generalizability of findings) are not requirements for teacher inquiries, which are conducted to answer specific questions within a particular learning environment. Within the context for which it is intended, some action research is good research; some is not. The crucial issue, however is that any process which encourages teachers' willingness and improves their ability to question their own practice is apt to be good staff development.

Evaluation of Training Services

Evaluation -- the grounded investigation of needs, purposes, processes, and outcomes of training -- is consistently identified in the professional literature as both a critical component and a weak link in the delivery of training services to adult education teachers and volunteer instructors (Leahy, 1986; Potish, 1985; Cranney, 1983).

Existing data provided by states offer a rather generalized picture of the efforts currently being made to evaluate the training services for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. As Figure II-5 indicates, 39 states identify some form of adult education instructor evaluation effort taking place. Twenty-five states report that training providers themselves evaluate their adult education instructor training activities and 14 states report that state staff monitor and evaluate training. Unfortunately, little data are available that speak of purposes or intent of evaluation activities. There is no mention of evaluation in the documents provided by 12 states.

Methods and Components of Evaluation

Limited data are available on evaluation methods, although states report some diversity among the methods used by training providers and by their own agencies to monitor and evaluate their own activities.

Evaluation by Training Providers

Twenty-two of the 25 states provided some information about how providers evaluate training services. Numerical indicators and participant surveys are the primary approaches used by providers to evaluate training services. Thirteen states report that provider evaluations of training services involve surveying participants. Six of these states rely primarily on such surveys, while seven also consider numerical indicators such as number of training sessions and participants. Four additional states rely primarily on such numerical indicators (for a total of 11 states that use this type of approach).

A relatively small number of states report that evaluations go beyond simple counting of participants or collecting participants' immediate reactions to training.

Only four states report that training providers employ any alternative, impact-oriented methods to evaluate staff development efforts. Such methods include: (1) measurement of gains in adult instructor competencies; (2) use of interviews and focus groups; and (3) gains in program

FIGURE II-5

Overview of Approaches Used Nationwide to Evaluate Adult Education Instructor Training

n=51	States
States reporting that training providers conduct some form of evaluation:	25
States reporting that a state agency conducts some form of external monitoring or evaluation:	14
States that do not mention evaluation of training in documents provided to project:	12

performance (measure or instrument not specified). These methods appear promising, for they represent the beginnings of thinking about assessment of the impacts or outcomes of training activities and deserve further investigation.

There needs to be a greater emphasis on impact evaluation, i.e., the assessment of changes in instructors' behavior that may be attributed to staff development (Jones, 1987). Potish (1985) also suggests that evaluating staff development should go beyond "smile sheets at the end of one-shot workshops." Teachers will often give high marks to staff development activities in which separate measures suggest that they learned relatively little and applied even less (Jones & Bolton, 1981). This is a significant issue because it suggests in part that teachers may not regard such activities as learning activities, but instead as rewards and opportunities to socialize.

Evaluations by States

Fourteen states report evaluation and monitoring of adult education instructor staff development by state agencies. State-conducted monitoring takes the form of site visits, review of reports from training providers, or a combination of the two methods. Five states report that they conduct some form of evaluation or monitoring of staff development activities, but the methods

employed are unspecified. Additional details regarding the nature of these site visits or reporting processes are unavailable from the extant data provided. It is, therefore, difficult to characterize the purposes, procedures, or outcomes of these state-conducted evaluation activities beyond the rather general data already reported.

Why Enhanced Evaluation Efforts Are Needed

It is evident from the data and the literature that current efforts to evaluate adult education instructor training activities are less than adequate and need to be rethought and expanded. Much of current training efforts are based on unsupported assumptions about instructor training needs, and few training programs present any evidence of a lasting impact on teacher behavior. Even the newer and promising formats of staff development such as peer coaching, self-directed learning, and action research can present little hard evidence of efficacy in the adult education environment, although the arguments for testing these approaches are surely compelling.

One direction that might be explored in connection with monitoring the impacts of adult education instructor training is the concept of "forward looking evaluation" (Fenstermacher & Berliner, 1983). This concept suggests a process through which program planners may increase the chances of success before a program begins by monitoring for the presence of certain design components in the training services (Caldwell, 1989; Fenstermacher & Berliner, 1983; Baden, 1982; Jones & Bolton, 1981).

Effective Staff Development: Lessons From K-12

Meaningful and lasting change requires an established training program with clearly defined procedures, long range goals, and carefully constructed support systems. The experiences in K-12 education provide guidelines for those interested in improving training for ABE and ESL

teachers and volunteer instructors. Some of these guidelines are already reflected in adult education training activities according to extant data received from states and local programs.

An Effective Staff Development Program Must be Based on Systematically Identified Needs

Effective staff development programs are based on systematically identified needs, not simply an administrator's vague perceptions of what is required. Assessment of staff development needs should rely heavily, though not entirely, on the perceptions of teachers and volunteer instructors themselves. In other words, the group to be most affected by staff development (teachers and volunteer instructors) should have a strong voice in identifying the needs on which these activities are to be based (a bottom-up as opposed to a top-down approach). On the other hand, since many teachers and volunteer instructors may not have had sufficient breadth of exposure to know exactly what their needs are or what the alternatives are for addressing them, their perceptions are not usually the only information on which decisions are based. Students, employers, administrators, and others should also be tapped as appropriate.

Data pertaining to needs may be gathered in a variety of ways (e.g., interview, survey, and literature review) and usually should be collected from several sources. Needs may also be classified in various ways (e.g., real, perceived, symptomatic). Regardless of how needs are identified and classified, a training program should be based on systematic assessment which represents all of its stakeholders in proportion to their interest and investment (Orlich, 1989; Knowles, 1984; Pennington, 1980; Rubin & Hansen, 1980; Monet, 1977).

An Effective Staff Development Program Involves Teachers and Volunteer Instructors in Planning and Decision-Making

Often teachers and volunteer instructors are expected to participate in workshops and other inservice programs that their supervisors have selected for them. In these instances, their learning may not only be limited, but they are less apt to develop as critical thinkers about their own professional development and to identify and pursue their own learning-for-teaching needs.

Teachers and volunteer instructors will derive more from "bottom-up" activities and programs in which they have had major responsibilities for planning, implementing, and evaluating. Furthermore, acceptance of these responsibilities creates ownership and gives individuals a more personal and lasting investment in their own professional growth (Jones & Mosier, 1987; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; Practical Applications of Research, 1983; Lawrence, 1982; Knowles, 1980).

An Effective Staff Development Program Maintains a Positive Climate for Teacher and Volunteer Instructor Growth and Change

Changes in teaching behavior occur most easily in a climate that encourages collegiality and collaboration and where every success helps the common good. The climate needed is one where the administrator is viewed primarily as an instructional leader, and that encourages experimentation and risk-taking, whether or not its successful. As one staff developer (Mohr, unpublished) notes:

> The person who tests out ideas, asks a lot of questions and seems argumentative, often gains and applies the most . . . but most school systems have not rewarded the teachers who initiate change, especially at the beginning when the risks and the possibility of failure are the greatest.

Teachers and volunteer instructors who engage in staff development need to be rewarded (monetarily, release time, and/or advancement); they need recognition and respect, and they need time and reinforcement to pursue new learning and to experiment in their classrooms. A staff development program that is lacking in these ingredients is not likely to bring about lasting growth and change for teachers, especially part-timers who are most in need of these supports (Lieberman, 1988; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; Mohr & MacLean, 1987; Jones & Lowe, 1982).

An Effective Staff Development Program Shows Evidence of Systematic Decision-Making and Demonstrates Consistent Underlying Assumptions

The designers, planners, and participants of staff development programs should remain constantly in touch with what the program is intended to accomplish. They should also be certain that up-to-date research information is incorporated within staff development activities. It is

especially important for those who are involved with staff development to be aware of the following areas:

- What level of knowledge needs to be communicated (e.g., information, attitudes, understanding of specific teaching skills), and at what level does it need to be learned by participants (e.g., general familiarity, ability to recall, ability to explain, ability to implement in practice)?

- Since all learning environments reflect the trainers' attitudes toward both the subject matter and the participants, what sort of balance exists between content and nurturant outcomes? For example, it may be more important initially to cultivate interest and enthusiasm among teachers in the hope of establishing a climate conducive to long-range professional growth than to place immediately a heavy emphasis on subject matter content.

- Is the content of the staff development program consistent with the appropriate knowledge base? For example, if the staff development program emphasizes reading instruction, are the resource staff familiar with what is known about how readers process print? (This is not as obvious as it sounds. Many presenters and instructional materials reveal no evidence of this knowledge.)

- Is the staff development program arranged in a manner that encourages teachers to engage in individualized learning projects, action research, and other activities which "create" knowledge? Are they offered guidance in such undertakings and given opportunities to share the results? Or are teachers considered simply recipients of information (Jones & Lowe, 1990; Caldwell, 1989; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1987; Mohr & MacLean, 1987; Brookfield, 1986; Jones & Lowe, 1985; Watts, 1988; Westbrook et al., 1985)?

An Effective Staff Development Program Reflects Continuity and Follow-Up

Evidence from a variety of sources indicates that one-shot workshops and training sessions are ineffective in bringing about changes in teacher and volunteer instructor behavior. Individual staff development activities must complement each other and reflect common goals and consistent underlying assumptions. Furthermore, teaching strategies must be coached and practiced many times before much transfer is likely to occur. Linkage between staff development and teaching settings may be encouraged in other ways such as preparation of actual classroom materials and applications within inservice sessions. Effective staff development must provide opportunities and

support systems for this linkage to occur (Jones & Lowe, 1990; Joyce & Showers, 1984; Practical Applications of Research, 1983; Showers, 1983).

An Effective Staff Development Program Includes Ongoing and Systematic Evaluation Procedures Reflecting Particular Attention to What Information is Gathered and How it is Used

The evaluation of staff development programs needs to go beyond "happiness quotient" surveys at the completion of inservice training sessions and should investigate the impacts of these programs on teachers' and volunteer instructors' classroom work. How did teachers benefit? What did they learn? What did they apply? What differences did their new learning make for students? These questions must be addressed continually in successful staff development programs as the issues addressed above are continually monitored (Caldwell, 1989; Baden, 1982; Jones & Bolton, 1981).

Summary

Section 353 of the Adult Education Act provides the main source of funding for adult education teacher and volunteer instructor training. This funding supports training services that are provided by state, regional, and local organizations. Four-year colleges and universities are major providers of adult education instructor training throughout the nation. However, it is believed that most training offered through these institutions is designed for administrators and few offer certificates for adult education teachers. States often make use of such institutions in combination with other adult education instructor training providers, primarily state training centers, and local and regional agencies. State-funded training centers represent a second major deliverer of the adult education instructor training system nationwide. However, in recent years statewide efforts have been criticized as being too generalized and state centers appear to be making an effort to provide training on a regional and local basis. Local and regional agencies

(i.e., local adult education programs, community colleges, community-based organizations, schools, and libraries) are a third source of training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. National organizations of adult education practitioners also play a significant role in providing training. Due to existing credentialing structures as well as a lack of higher education offerings, the primary focus of training for adult education instructors appears to be inservice, rather than preservice training. In adult education, inservice training is of greater importance than in elementary and secondary education because of the lack of preservice training opportunities.

Training for ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors is provided through different formats, such as workshops, conferences, and university coursework. The majority of training services, as reported by the extant data from states and local programs, is delivered through single workshops or conferences. Many states, however, rely on multiple delivery formats. It also seems to be the case that newer and potentially promising delivery formats are emerging. These include self-directed learning, peer coaching, and action research.

Only limited evaluation data on adult education teacher and volunteer instructor training activities are available. These efforts provide, at best, a generalized assessment of training activities and are consequently less than adequate. Much of the current training efforts are based on unsupported assumptions about lasting impact on teacher and volunteer instructor behavior.

Information from the K-12 system provides guidance for those interested in improving ABE and ESL teacher and volunteer instructor training. The major elements of effective staff development are: systematically identifying needs, involving teachers in planning and decision making, maintaining a positive climate for teachers, reflecting up-to-date information, providing adequate time for follow-up, and conducting a systematic evaluation of training services.

CHAPTER III

THE CONTENT OF ABE AND ESL TRAINING

Ideally, the content of adult education services, as well as training for teachers and volunteer instructors, should be based on a universally accepted understanding of how adults learn. There are, however, a wide range of alternative, and sometimes competing, theoretical constructs of adult learning. This situation complicates efforts to determine the appropriate content of training services for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors.

In this chapter the content of such training services is examined. First, various theoretical perspectives that guide instructional services and the content of training are presented. With this information as background, the chapter is divided into four remaining sections. First, an overview of training topics is presented. The information in this section is based on extant data and written descriptions about training that have been provided by both states and local programs.

The remaining three sections of this chapter draw upon the K-12 staff development literature to discuss the types of knowledge and skills related to subject-matter content and pedagogical content which ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors should possess. K-12 school divisions not only have more resources than ABE and ESL programs, but they have been interested in this issue longer, have attracted more attention from colleges and universities, and are better situated to examine the impacts of particular staff development activities and programs oriented toward teacher change.

Theoretical Perspectives of Adult Learning

Determining the optimal content of ABE and ESL instructor and volunteer training can be complicated by the lack of a single, accepted theory of adult learning in the United States. Theories of adult learning have for many years been drawn from a variety of sources

(Boucouvalas & Arin-Krupp, 1989). For example, many of the "mainstream" theories of adult learning that have been accepted for several decades draw upon developmental and educational psychology (Knowles, 1984, 1980; Levinson, 1978; Knox, 1977; Erikson, 1976; Piaget, 1972; Havighurst, 1970). These theorists often posit "stages" of individual development as the basis for adult learning. Given the primarily psychological orientation of the research on which many of these theories are based, the predominant focus of mainstream adult education often has been upon the adult learner as an individual, somewhat absent of social context.

In contrast to the individualized, psychological focus of the theories alluded to above, theories of adult learning have also emerged with a more sociological focus, and offer alternatives to the previously noted mainstream theories. The works of Freire (1973, 1970); Mezirow (1981), and others, for example, adopt a critical perspective on adult learning, suggesting that adult learning -- particularly the learning of literacy -- cannot be divorced from the socioeconomic context of the learners. They also argue that an orientation toward social change must be an integral component of adult education.

Feminist social science research also has a recent impact on the development of adult learning theories, and researchers such as Gilligan (1982) and Belenky et al. (1986) point to the need for a clearer understanding of the unique natures of females as adult learners. Prior to their work, most treatments of adult learning, while claiming application to all adults regardless of gender, were largely reflective of research and conjecture by males about the lives of males. Cognitive science and cognitive psychology offer other important areas of theoretical promise for better understanding adult learners (Gardner, 1987; Sternberg & Wagner, 1986; Scribner, 1986). So too, do the related fields of sociolinguistics and second language acquisition, particularly with the development of theories of communicative competence (Gass & Schacter, 1989; Klein, 1986;

Hakuta, 1986; Krashen & Terrel, 1983; Cook, 1982; Cummins, 1980; Widdowson, 1978; Hymes, 1971).

Thus while there may be a lack of a single, unified theory of adult learning to serve as the agreed-upon basis of adult instructor training, this is not to say that there are not viable theories to guide practitioners and trainers of practitioners. On the contrary, there appears to be a considerable range of -- sometimes competing -- alternative theoretical constructs to guide the adult educator. The difficulty for trainers and practitioners lies in understanding and drawing from a broad range of social science disciplines to integrate the diverse theories that have bearing upon adult education.

The research literature, however, consistently indicates that training services for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be responsive to the adult education workforce's lack of experience with teaching adults and should include instruction that identifies adult learning types and strategies which are different from those of children. Furthermore, training programs for adult educators need to help practitioners develop sensitivity to, as well as the ability to deal with, the needs of adults with learning deficiencies (Kazemek, 1988; Harman, 1985).

Content of Current Teacher Training Programs

The focus of instructor training programs shifts from time to time depending upon perceived training needs, philosophies and policy directions articulated by funding sources such as state departments of education, and perceptions of shifts in the client population. Over the past decade such shifts have included: (1) an emphasis on ABE and ESL recruitment and retention; (2) a focus on ESL adult education to help instructors meet the needs of non-literate and pre-literate ESL learners; and (3) an interest in volunteer training efforts. Figure III-1 places in rank

FIGURE III-1

Frequency of Content Areas
(content areas which at least 5 states reported as important; most states are represented in multiple categories therefore percents do not total 100)

	States	Percent
Curriculum and strategy selection	35	69
Computers/technology in the classroom	23	45
General management (PR, finances, etc.)	23	45
Learning disabled adults	21	41
Workplace literacy	21	41
Math	19	37
Peer Observation and Coaching	16	31
Managing volunteers	14	27
Adult learners	13	25
Laubach	12	24
Family literacy	11	22
Cultural awareness	11	22
Managing stress/counseling techniques	11	22
Student assessment	11	22
Critical thinking	11	22
Learning styles	10	20
Whole language experience	10	20
Mentoring	5	10

TOTAL STATES REPRESENTED
IN THIS SUMMARY: 51

order the content that states report in their training programs. For example, in more than two-thirds of the states some training is provided in helping teachers "select appropriate curriculum and strategies" for their ABE/ESL classrooms. That pedagogical area was the only content area in which training is provided in over half of the states. In nearly half (45 percent) of the states training is provided in "general classroom management," including public relations and obtaining financial resources.

In 45 percent of the states training in the "use of computers and technology in the classroom" is available. Next highest in the ratings (41 percent each) were the areas of "workplace literacy" and "learning disabled adults." It would appear that the high ratings of computers, technology, and workplace literacy reflect the current interest, pressure, and funding from many sources to make services of more interest to students by enhancing their opportunity for employment.

Much of the recent literature on staff development emphasizes the importance of continued training for lasting change to occur in teaching behavior. The K-12 research indicates that "peer coaching" has been one of the most effective vehicles for effecting that change. To what extent do adult basic education programs train in this innovative procedure? In 37 percent of the states training on peer coaching is available or training is provided using peer coaching. Whereas the literature places great emphasis on the importance of teachers "understanding the adult learner" and on "using volunteers effectively" in instructional programs, in only about one-quarter of the states is training available on these topics.

In 14 states (27 percent) training (primarily for administrators) in managing volunteers is available. Laubach training programs are used in 12 states (24 percent). In most cases those are the same states that reported training in volunteer management. A study conducted by San Francisco State University's Center for Adult Education (1987) found volunteers felt they had

little role in curriculum development or decision making. Most felt they were relegated to clerical status, even if they had been trained as teachers. How to select, train, and manage volunteers is a vital training area for those programs using them. Many teachers are unsure about how or when to use volunteers.

Less than one-fourth of the states provide teacher training in the more recently acknowledged (and sometimes funded) areas such as family literacy, critical thinking, cultural awareness (especially for ESL teachers), counseling techniques including stress management, and student assessment. Each of the above content areas was mentioned in extant data provided from programs in 11 states (22 percent).

Likewise, sessions on "learning styles" have been given considerable attention at national and state conferences during the past 10 years and still seem to draw substantial attendance. Yet only one-fifth (10 states) reported specific training in that area. Similarly, the currently popular K-12 training area, "whole language approach," was also noted by only 20 percent of the states.

Closely allied to coaching practices are "mentoring" programs. Some training has occurred in that area. The effectiveness of mentoring relates to many factors including who chooses the mentor, whether the mentor is an administrator or fellow teacher, personality compatibility, similarity of teaching styles, and the like. Five states (10 percent) report training activity in mentoring. Content areas mentioned by fewer than five states are not reported in Figure III-1.

Content of Training for Volunteers

The content of preservice training varies from agency to agency, but national organizations such as LVA or LLA have formal preservice training requirements that are strictly adhered to. Borden (1984) suggests that training volunteers for adult education, particularly for those working with students, should have the following topics included in their preservice training:

- An overview of the program and the specific area for which the volunteer is being trained.

- An orientation to the adult learner; how her/his learning may differ from younger learners.
- A discussion of clearly stated program objectives to be met through volunteer assistance.
- Demonstrations and practice of specific activities to be carried out by volunteers in meeting those objectives.
- An introduction to materials volunteers will use; a chance to practice using same.
- Suggestions for games and ideas volunteers can use to enhance adult learning.
- Clarification of the volunteer's role in relation to professional staff.
- Adequate time for discussion (Borden, 1984, pp. VI-6, 7).

Illustrative of volunteer instructor training is the Kansas Volunteer Tutor Utilization (KV-TUTOR) project, which has sessions to "familiarize tutors with the characteristics of adult learners, the language experience approach, sight words and phonics, and goal setting and lesson planning."

Selection of Training Content

Traditionally, selection of training content in adult basic education has been administratively determined. More recently some inroads have been made in allowing teachers to participate in that process (see the discussion on K-12 staff development practices).

Various kinds of needs assessments have served as the vehicles for giving teachers a role in determining what training content will be offered. Figure III-2 presents the various methods of needs assessment used across the states. It is difficult still to determine the extent to which teachers are actually involved in the selection of training content. For example, in some states regional/program directors submit training requests to the state. It is not clear how the regional/program directors determine those needs. Another popular device is for applicants for state grants to identify needs in their applications. Again, how those needs are determined is not specified.

FIGURE III-2

Numerical Summary: Methods of Needs Assessment:

	States	Percent
State-level body performs state-wide needs assessment:	16	31
State offices prioritize needs identified regionally/locally:	7	14
Regional/local directors meet to identify state-wide needs:	8	16
Local/regional bodies identify local/regional needs:	15	29
No mention of needs assessment in documents provided:	5	10
TOTAL STATES	51	100

Training needs seem to be determined at both the state level and the regional/local level. As can be seen in Figure III-2, state-level bodies control needs determinations in 45 percent of the states either by conducting state-wide assessments (31 percent) or by prioritizing regionally/locally identified needs (14 percent). Likewise, regional/local bodies control needs determination in 45 percent of the states by somehow identifying those needs (29 percent) or by having regional/local directors meet to determine needs (16 percent). The final 10 percent of states made no mention of needs assessment in their reports.

Subject-Matter Knowledge

Specific subject-matter content in which adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should receive training include reading, writing and mathematics and, for ESL, second language acquisition. In recent years, significant changes have occurred in the teaching of reading, writing and mathematics -- the K-12 content areas that are of primary interest to ABE

and ESL. In general, there has been an increased emphasis on meaning and utility as opposed to simply mechanics, and on the application of these skills to real-life situations.

Recently, the content of adult education instructional services has begun to incorporate such topics as problem solving, higher order thinking skills, and interpersonal relations within basic skills instruction. A 1989 study by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) declared that reading, writing, and math, while necessary, are no longer the only basic skills needed by the American workforce. ASTD identified seven groups of skills that are now required:

- Knowing how to learn;
- Reading, writing, and computation;
- Listening and speaking;
- Creative thinking and problem solving;
- Self-esteem;
- Interpersonal skills; and
- Organizational effectiveness.

During the 1980s, K-12 education also focused on the development of "higher order" thinking skills, which "go beyond recall and rote learning and allow individuals to generate alternatives, make connections and transformations, analyze, infer, hypothesize, justify, and evaluate" (McTighe, 1986). Included are critical thinking, which refers to the interpretation, analysis, and evaluation of information and creative or inventive thinking, which explores new situations and/or reaches new solutions to old problems.

Although its presentation in the schools takes many forms, the consistent theme in the thinking movement is that it is not enough for students to learn information, much of which becomes quickly obsolete. Students must also learn to process information and to develop

thinking skills that will help them to cope with tomorrow's world. This same orientation is reflected in the 1988 changes to the GED Tests, which were revised to emphasize higher order thinking skills in recognition of their importance to adult learners.

Reading and Writing

The content of reading at all levels continues the debate of sequential skills versus a more psycholinguistic approach. In adult education, that debate has been reflected in a "skills-oriented developmental approach" versus a "process-oriented functional approach." Research studies indicate that both approaches are effective in producing reading gains for some adults (Norman & Malicky, 1984). These approaches have traditionally been reflected in the volunteer programs of Laubach Literacy Action, representing a sequential skills approach, and Literacy Volunteers of America, representing the more functional process approach. Much of the problem with reading research in adult education involves the measurement of reading gains. Most research has relied on reading tests that provide questionable measures of adult reading processes.

In writing it has been traditionally assumed, especially in ESL, that there is an appropriate sequence of language acquisition: listening, speaking, reading, and then writing. More recent directions, including whole language approaches, combine all of the above areas as appropriate for individual adult needs and circumstances. Adults, especially, benefit from being able to relate what is being taught to their own experiences and have been less willing than children to move sequentially through language stages.

Increasingly, K-12 scholars and practitioners have recognized the connections between reading and writing and the need for "literacy-learning environments" in which students' uses of these skills are integrated and inseparable. In both of these areas there has been a growing emphasis on use of the student's own language, in part as a vehicle for helping learners understand that literacy exists for construction and communication of meaning, not for the

mastery of isolated subskills. As a result, there has been increased attention to the learner's own metacognitive processes and the "conversation in his or her head" as reading and writing occur. Often students are asked to keep journals of their reflections, sometimes for sharing with the teacher and others, sometimes simply for their own benefit.

An increased effort has been made to draw on learners' capacity for creative thought, to pay attention to their questions, and to engage reading and writing in learners' own terms. The insights and values of the National Writing Project (NWP) have been especially helpful in improving the teaching of writing through its emphasis on content before mechanics, pride of ownership, understanding of revision as a natural and constructive process, and creation of nurturing learning environments through classroom writing conferences and student reading-writing groups.

There has also been more emphasis on the teaching of literacy within the contexts of other school subjects (analogous to workplace literacy), such as math or social studies. These trends have not eliminated the need for mechanics, but have altered the context in which they are taught in many schools. Such changes in K-12 reading and writing instruction and their implementation in particular schools are well documented in the professional literature including the Reading Teacher and the Journal of Reading, both publications of the International Reading Association, and the Journal of English, a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. In addition, Educational Leadership, a journal of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, devoted its entire March 1990 issue to this topic.

Mathematics

Changes in K-12 math instruction have been similar in philosophy and intent. While mastery of multiplication tables and various other basics is still necessary for efficient math performance, mathematics instruction is less computation-focused (or at least less computation-

restricted) than it has been in the past. The focus is moving toward real-life applications and the analysis of information required to solve math problems that occur in non-school environments. In contrast with a primary emphasis on correct answers, what the student understands has become the issue of importance. Learners are often asked to estimate answers rather than to calculate them precisely in order to determine whether or not they grasp the context in which their calculations are to be applied. The use of manipulatives is often employed to communicate concepts in concrete terms. Two publications of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Arithmetic Teacher and Mathematics Teacher, reflect these changes in teaching-learning emphasis.

Second Language Acquisition Skills for ESL Learners

While substantial and rigorous research into literacy and language acquisition issues for ABE and ESL learners is clearly still needed, theoretical developments in the fields of applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, second language acquisition, and teaching English as a second language (TESL) offer important suggestions about the nature of adult second-language learners and adult second-language learning. Much of the research and debate about how learners acquire a second language and what they do with that language serves as the basis for second-language curriculum planning and teaching practice worldwide. These approaches also influence much of current adult ESL teaching practice in the United States, particularly in those states with large ESL learner populations and active professional ESL teaching organizations.

Instruction for nonliterate and preliterate ESL learners is a vital area in which the absence of a coherent and research-based set of curricula and instructional approaches impedes teacher training, as well as instruction itself. There has been relatively little theory building or research on this topic. The current state of research knowledge in the area of adult ESL literacy is fragmentary and contradictory. There is no agreement on whether reading and writing should

be taught separately or together, or on whether reading should precede writing. In fact, the only idea that has gained widespread acceptance -- if not systematic empirical validation -- is that oral skills should be developed prior to and as the basis for reading and writing (Wallace, 1986; Bell and Burnaby, 1984; Rathnell, 1984). Many important issues with respect to ESL literacy learning and instruction -- such as the value of developing literacy skills in both the home language and the target language in the adult literacy acquisition process -- remain primarily matters of speculation in the literature, and deserve further careful investigation (Hakuta, 1986; Wallace, 1986; Cummins, 1980; Fishman, 1978).

The literature states adult ESL teachers should be knowledgeable about three critical issues related to second language acquisition researchers: (1) the idea of a "critical period" for second language acquisition; (2) access to a "universal grammar" by second language learners; and (3) the "monitor" theory of second language acquisition.

"Critical Period" for Second Language Acquisition

The idea of a "critical period" for language acquisition grows out of the everyday observation that many people perceive greater "difficulty" in acquiring a second language as adults than they did in acquiring their first language as children. It may be necessary for adults to acquire second language skills in a physiologically different, more difficult way. First-language acquisition by children and second-language acquisition by adults, it is claimed, need to be seen as two biologically different processes (Klein, 1986; Scovel, 1969; Lennenberg, 1967).

There are, however, powerful social counterarguments to the primarily biological explanation offered above (Harley, Allen, Cummins, & Swain, 1990; Gass & Schacter, 1989; Cook, 1982). It may well be, for example, that the adult immigrant is much less willing to give up his well-established social identity in the home culture by becoming fully fluent in the language of a new culture. There may also be other influential social context factors affecting adult second

language acquisition that operate less intrusively on child first-language acquisition. It is sometimes argued, too, that in the language learning situation adults, by virtue of their fully developed cognitive capacities, can bring to bear many learning skills that children cannot. They can, for example, conceive of abstract "rules" about language and consciously apply them (Cook, 1982).

Access to a "Universal Grammar" by Adult Second Language Learners

Another related area of debate surrounding the question of adult second language acquisition is based upon Noam Chomsky's (1965) notion of the language acquisition device (LAD), to which all humans are said to have access in their acquisition of a first language as children. In a generally well-accepted set of arguments, Chomsky suggests that the LAD is an innate human language endowment -- a coherent set of principles and parameters that children are born with -- which, taken together with the input of everyday language that a child hears in the first one or two years of life, accounts for the rapid emergence of language in all children of all cultures and language backgrounds (Schacter, 1989). In no other way, it is argued, can this rapid language development be accounted for; the "miracle" of a child's acquisition of language, it is said, cannot simply be explained as a sum of all the language fragments the child has been exposed to during the first few years of life (Chomsky, 1965).

The theory of a "universal grammar" grows from the notion of a language acquisition device, as applied to the problem of adult second-language acquisition. The extent to which the adult second language learner does or does not have access to the universal grammar to use as a tool for acquiring the second language is a matter of considerable recent debate among second language acquisition researchers. In addition, the degree to which second-language teaching practitioners "believe in" the existence of the universal grammar can have a considerable influence on the teaching methodologies they may employ.

The "Monitor" Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Stephen Krashen's (1985) "monitor" theory of second language acquisition may be seen as an elaboration of the first position outlined above, which argues that adult second language learners can gain full access to the universal grammar to acquire a new language. Krashen argues that there are two ways for adult learners to gain proficiency in a second language: subconscious acquisition and conscious learning.

Subconscious acquisition, Krashen (1985) suggests, is by far the more important of the two processes, for it is based on meaningful and purposeful communication with speakers of the new language, and the learner is oriented not to the form but to the content and effect of utterances, remaining unaware of the linguistic rules and structures used in the process. It can only take place, he argues, if the learner receives a considerable dosage of the new language used in ways that enable the learner to naturally grasp its meaning.

Conscious learning is said to involve the internalization of explicit rules under conscious control. Language output and self-correction are said to be examples of the operation of a "monitor" which can become effective in a communication situation only if: (a) there is enough time to operate it; (b) the speaker is concerned with the correctness of his/her speech production; and (c) the speaker knows the correct rule to apply (Klein, 1986).

Krashen's work has been relatively widely disseminated in the ESL practitioner community, and his theories are often cited by teachers as the basis for current classroom practice. The monitor theory has spawned what is termed "the natural approach" to second language teaching, which places a considerable emphasis on offering comprehensible input to the learner through extensive listening activities in the early stages of second language acquisition, prior to requiring any oral language production on the part of the learner (Krashen, 1985).

Pedagogical Content

Adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be knowledgeable in certain pedagogical areas that are related specifically to adult learners and that distinguish adult learners from students in elementary and secondary grade levels. Nunes and Halloran (1987) identified eight teachable skills and competencies constituting successful performance of ABE instruction: understanding the adult learner, personal qualities, knowledge of the field, knowledge of teaching techniques, creativity, communication/interpersonal skills, professionalism, and management organization.

The Center for Adult Education at San Francisco State University researched and developed a Teaching Improvement Process (TIP) instrument which identified six categories of teaching skills as necessary for excellence in adult instruction: overall organization of the learning activity, lifeskill competency application, monitoring student performance, teaching to a variety of student learning styles, appropriateness of materials, and classroom grouping strategies.

In this section a number of pedagogical areas in which adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be knowledgeable are discussed. These areas are:

- Knowledge of adult learners;
- Diagnosis of student needs and abilities;
- Identification and teaching of students with learning disabilities;
- Cultural awareness;
- Establishing a positive learning environment;
- Providing opportunities for success;
- Providing an awareness of progress and achievement; and
- Appropriate patterns of student-teacher interaction.

Knowledge of Adult Learners

Theories or models of adult learning acknowledge the inherent differences between adult and child learners. The andragogical model of adult learning that is readily accepted by most adult educators is based on the assumptions that as people mature they: (1) become more self-directed; (2) accumulate a reservoir of experience; (3) need to see a relationship between learning and their social roles; and (4) want learning to be problem-centered (instead of subject-centered) and oriented to real-life situations (Knowles, 1984).

Information about adult motivation, developmental sequence, and differences from children and youth can help teachers of adults select instructional content and methods that are appropriate. It can also help them avoid such embarrassing practices as condescension, scolding, or punishment.

Diagnosis of Student Needs and Ability

Adult education students are a population with special needs. Very often they have failed in traditional school settings because of previously undiagnosed learning disabilities. Because adult education programs rarely have skilled diagnosticians, teachers and volunteer instructors constantly need to make judgments about students and should receive training in diagnosing adult learning needs (Smith et al., 1979). Teachers and volunteer instructors also must be prepared to determine if participants are placed at the correct instructional level. Among the questions that teachers and volunteer instructors need to ask are: Are participants interested in the content to be presented? Are their learning problems related to learning disabilities, low self-esteem, or physical conditions such as poor eyesight, hearing deficiencies, or the like? What pencil-paper tests are appropriate, if any? Are applied performance measures available? What community resources can help students stay in school or improve performance?

Identification and Teaching of Students with Learning Disabilities

Closely related to the above topic is the need for some teacher ability in identifying signs of learning disabilities. Many adult students may have dropped out of elementary or secondary school because of undiagnosed learning disabilities. Nonetheless, many of these adults return later in life to adult education programs in the belief that learning may be easier the second time around. If teachers of adults cannot identify the student's learning needs this time, the damage to the student's self-image may be irreparable. Whereas it is probably not feasible for teachers to become clinically proficient, they can be trained to identify those signs of learning disabilities that warrant referral for professional diagnosis. Again knowledge of community resources in this area is essential. Likewise, once students have been diagnosed, they often have to remain in the same classroom. Teachers and volunteer instructors can be trained in techniques of appropriate instruction for individual learning disabilities and for appropriate interpersonal relations.

Awareness of Different Cultures

Adult education teachers, especially ESL teachers, can enhance learning and avoid insulting students if they are aware of cultural beliefs and practices that students hold. Values and beliefs about the family, work, punctuality, the future, and education, for example, will influence ways that individuals respond to educational situations. In addition, learning styles are greatly influenced by cultural beliefs and practices (Freeman, 1989; Kreidler, 1986; Drennan, 1984).

Positive Learning Environment

Historically, learning environments in adult education have been seen as "more accepting than conventional [K-12] education" (Cross, 1986, p. 228). This view is derived from humanistic theory, which maintains that learning flourishes in a nurturing and encouraging environment and that effective teaching plays a major role in the learning process. Proponents of this view state

that the psychological climate of the classroom is the key aspect of learning (Balmuth, 1987; Grabowski, 1987). When this climate is positive, it can compensate for other shortcomings within the environment. Given a conducive psychological climate, learners can disregard physical distractions in the classroom. Conversely, a perfect physical setting cannot overcome a poor emotional environment.

The primary responsibility for ensuring that a positive environment exists lies with the teacher or volunteer instructor who plays the pivotal role in establishing a stimulating and emotionally secure environment (Heath, 1980; Taylor and Associates, 1980, Greenleigh Associates, 1968). Studies consistently describe "good" teachers as showing respect for their students' abilities and knowledge, being patient and understanding, being open to different approaches, emphasizing the positive, and being able to create a supportive learning environment.

Opportunities for Success

A common theme in adult education is the importance of creating in adult learners a sense that they can succeed and that mechanisms (teachers, programs, etc.) are available to help them achieve success. Balmuth's (1987, p.7) analysis that "where opportunities exist for adults to enroll in an ABE program, failure to do so may often stem from lack of hope for success," reflects a prominent theme in the research literature. These studies stress the need for adult learners to have opportunities for success as well as regular and consistent recognition for successes (Wallace et al., 1988; Balmuth, 1987; Knowles, 1980).

Because many participants have not had positive learning experiences, they lack identifiable experiences that enable them to expect success in learning (Clark, 1986). Early indications of success must be visible and concrete and presented within the first few lessons. Rewards also must be appropriate and help the learner develop realistic expectations (Gadsden, 1988). An approach may begin with highly relevant, meaningful material, such as helping the

adult recognize his or her name or address when written; it may include sharing a story or experience that the teacher records. Lessons should be planned to provide the student with every opportunity for successful completion by allowing ample time for practice and consultation.

Awareness of Progress and Achievement

Immediate and continuous feedback to keep students informed of their progress is considered a key element of successful adult education programs. In short, students need to know how they are doing in the classroom. Studies of ABE dropouts emphasize the importance of immediate and continuous feedback, pointing out that students need to know that they are making progress (Mikulecky, 1982). Without some sense of how they are doing in the classroom, students quickly become discouraged and frustrated.

Research indicates that awareness of progress is essential to continued learning and recommends ongoing evaluations to provide continuous measurement of progress. Verner and Booth (1964) note that such evaluations must be personal rather than competitive so as to enhance the internal motivation of the adult learner. Newman (1980) suggests that charting how a learner progresses toward a goal is an easy and tangible way of keeping the goal before the student.

Student-Teacher Interaction

A related area that has received growing attention in K-12 classrooms during the last decade is teacher-student interaction patterns. For example, what is the proportion of student talk as opposed to teacher talk in a particular class session? Does the teacher wait a sufficient amount of time for students to respond after asking a question? What is the nature of student talk? Asking questions? Reciting information in response to teacher questions? Presenting ideas? Suggesting alternatives? Do students listen to each other? Are all categories of students,

especially minorities, equally involved in discussions? Are they equally encouraged and stimulated by the teacher? The last two questions in particular have been focal points of "Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement" (TESA), an inservice program developed by Mary Martin and Sam Kerman of the Los Angeles County School System in 1980 and employed during the past decade in many school systems throughout the country. TESA is designed to increase teachers' awareness of their responses to different students, especially low achievers, and to promote more supportive and motivating interactions.

ESL Pedagogical Content

A review of the field of second-language teaching pedagogy reveals four major approaches to which practitioners have adhered for the past several decades. These include: (1) the grammar translation approach; (2) the audiolingual approach; (3) the communicative approach; and (4) the humanistic/psychological approach. Each is discussed briefly in this section. Examples of specific teaching methods and strategies are cited, as appropriate.

The Grammar Translation Approach

The grammar translation approach makes no distinction between written and oral language. Reading and writing skills are emphasized, and there is also a heavy focus on the learning of abstract grammatical rules. Development of oral or listening skills is largely ignored (Roberts, 1982). Now largely discredited, this approach was the basis for second language instruction in the United States and Western Europe until the 1960's, when the audio-lingual approach became popular. It is important to understand the grammar translation approach, if for no other reason than the fact that many immigrants coming to the United States may have been taught in their home countries using the grammar translation approach. Their expectations for

what language instruction should "look like" thus may not always be met by teachers in ESL classes who are employing newer methods (Roberts, 1982).

The Audiolingual Approach

The audiolingual approach was developed in the 1960's as a reaction to the book-centered orientation of the grammar translation approach, which had emphasized reading and writing skills. The audiolingual approach shifted the focus of second language teaching to speaking and listening. A major assumption of the approach -- to which many second language teachers continue to subscribe -- is that the second language is best learned orally and aurally, with reading and writing serving as reinforcers prior to being treated in their own right as important skills. The academic schools of behaviorist psychology and structuralist linguistics were predominant at the time audiolingualism emerged and their respective views of language learning as a process of formation and of language itself as speech provided a rationale for the new methodology (Saville-Troike, 1979).

The audiolingual approach, like the grammar translation approach, assumes that the major problem in hearing a foreign language is to master the grammatical structure of that language, and that this problem requires almost exclusive attention. Both approaches tend to maintain teacher-centeredness because of the necessity for keeping the class together and under control (Roberts, 1982).

The actual methods developed out of the audiolingual approach constituted a considerable shift in pedagogy for second language teachers, and these were accompanied by the increased use of new (at the time) technologies such as language laboratories and audiovisual equipment. Classroom activities such as drills, memorization, dialogues, and substitution of language patterns may be said to characterize the audiolingual approach. It should be noted that

many audiolingual methods remain in regular use in second language classrooms today, and continue to constitute a considerable portion of the language teacher's arsenal (Orem, 1987).

The Communicative Approach

The communicative approach, to some extent a response to audiolingualism, stresses the development of communicative competence as the goal for learners, rather than structurally or grammatically correct responses in the early stages of second language acquisition. The approach is based upon recent developments in linguistics, sociolinguistics, and philosophy of language which argue for a distinction between language (the abstract "rules" of how correct utterances are to be constructed) and communication (the actual meaningful, situated language-in-use) (Roberts, 1982; Widdowson, 1978; Hymes, 1971).

One impact of the communicative approach has been a shifted focus in language teaching from an emphasis on grammatic structures to one on communicative functions, or what the learner is really trying to do in a social sense with language. To exemplify this, a lesson influenced by the communicative approach might focus on "showing anger" rather than on "the present perfect tense" as might be the case with the audiolingual or grammar translation approaches.

Specific classroom methodologies that are employed by teachers who adopt the communicative approach might include listening activities, role playing, problem-solving, total physical response (TPR), pair practice, and contact assignments outside the classroom. Morrow (1981) offers the following tentative principles of a communicative language teaching methodology:

- Know what you are doing (i.e. make sure each part of the lesson focuses on some operation the student might want to perform in the target language);
- The whole is more than the sum of the parts (i.e. communication cannot be broken down into its component parts without its nature being thus destroyed);

- The processes are as important as the forms;
- To learn it, do it; and
- Mistakes are not always a mistake.

Humanistic/Psychological Approaches

A final set of approaches to teaching second language acquisition may be summarized as "humanistic/psychological" in nature. These approaches share two assumptions: (1) that the affective aspects of language learning are as important as the cognitive aspects; and (2) that the answers to language-learning problems are more likely to come from psychology than from linguistics. Three well-known methodological frameworks which may be characterized as humanistic/psychological are briefly described below:

- The Silent Way in which sounds of the target language are introduced through use of a color chart and colored rods. The teacher remains silent for long periods of time thereby forcing students to generate the language from previously-learned information. There is considerable controversy regarding the effectiveness of this approach in transferring the grammatical forms to actual language usage (Stevick, 1980; Varvel, 1979);
- Suggestopedia, a psychologically-based language learning technique, presents the new language while students are in a relaxed state. Physical exercise, specific background music, and encouragement are supposed to allow memorization to become spontaneous. This approach is supported by the research of Lozanov (1979) but questioned by other researchers such as Wagner and Tilney (1983) and Scovel (1969);
- Community Language Learning (CLL) requires a specially trained counselor-teacher who uses shared, task-oriented activities (first in the native language and then translated by the counselor-teacher) on social and affective language. It also is communicatively based rather than grammatically based, but has very limited application for ESL classrooms with multi-lingual, multi-level students; and
- Palo Freire Approaches which use techniques based on the teachings of Palo Freire. These techniques use highly-emotional (and sometimes controversial) language content that encourages students to address relevant life-problems through problem-posing and other communicative strategies.

Most ESL teachers need to be skilled in several approaches and be able to use them as appropriate to subject-matter content, student abilities, and interest.

Summary

Two categories of content for training appear to take place for ABE and ESL teachers and volunteer instructors. These categories are: (1) training in subject-matter content (content that is taught to students); and (2) training in pedagogical content (content on understanding adults, cultural differences, and teaching methods).

Most of the research and development in these areas has taken place in K-12 programs and later has been adapted for ABE and ESL. The extent of training programs in ABE and ESL or for volunteer instructors, however, is minimal. In less than one-fourth of the states is training for volunteer instructors available, and the content of that training varies tremendously from state to state. Likewise, few states systematically use training procedures, such as peer coaching, that greatly increase the likelihood of new content actually being incorporated into classroom practices.

Data on the content of training for volunteer instructors is elusive. The content appears to consist primarily of tutoring techniques or program content such as that of Laubach Literacy Action (LLA) programs or specific techniques for teaching reading, such as the Language Experience Approach.

Determining the content of training services does not appear to take place in a systematic manner. Needs assessments are reported to be made by some states at local, regional, or statewide levels, but the structure of those assessments is not specified. Some states have meetings at some of the above levels where content is decided; some rely on the content specified in proposals for Section 353 funding, and some states make no mention of the process.

Subject-matter content in which adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should receive training include reading, writing, and mathematics and, for ESL, second language acquisition. Recently, the content of adult education instructional services has begun to

incorporate such topics as problem solving, higher order thinking skills, and interpersonal relations.

There are a number of pedagogical areas related specifically to adult learners, and which distinguish adults from child learners, with which adults education teachers and volunteer instructors should be familiar. These are: knowledge of adult learners, diagnosis of student needs and ability, identification and teaching of students with learning disabilities, awareness of cultural differences, providing a positive learning environment, offering opportunities for success, providing awareness of student progress and achievement, and maintaining appropriate student-teacher interactions.

A review of the field of second language teaching pedagogy reveals four major approaches that practitioners have adhered to for the past several decades: the Grammar Translation Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, the Communication Approach, and the Humanistic/Psychological Approach. A number of teaching methods are associated with each of these four approaches.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS

Inadequate training for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors is considered to be one of the main impediments to improving ABE and ESL instructional services. At best, adult education teachers receive a few days of training per year through voluntary attendance at workshops, conferences, or seminars. Programs are not likely to offer release time or monetary incentives for staff to participate in training activities.

Providing training services is complicated by a number of factors and conditions associated with the ABE and ESL system. The part-time nature of the adult education system, especially the predominance of part-time teachers and volunteer instructors, and limited financial resources available for adult education services and training makes it difficult for many programs to provide systematic and on-going training activities. A body of adult education research on which to base training services does not exist. Few empirical studies have examined issues associated with adult education instruction and training. Also, state certification requirements for teachers are essentially non-existent. The challenge for the field is to design, within the constraints of the ABE and ESL delivery system, a suitable training delivery system that provides training on appropriate topics.

Delivery of Training Services

Section 353 of the Adult Education Act is the primary source of funding for training adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Training services are provided by state, regional, and local agencies which offer varied training activities, including workshops, conferences, and institutes. Statewide training efforts have been criticized as being too generalized and it has been suggested that the training activities should be the responsibility of

local adult education programs. In response to this concern, a number of states have begun to decentralize their training services, even when funding for training is provided through a state training center.

Format of Training Services

Many states rely on multiple training formats. Single workshops and single conferences are the primary method for training adult education teachers and volunteer instructors even though "one-shot" staff development experiences are not as effective as longer-term multiple-session approaches that enable practitioners to acquire and practice new concepts and skills and to receive feedback on their performance. Although data provided by states and local programs do not offer a specific explanation for the continued prevalence of single workshops and conferences as training formats, possible reasons include limited financial resources and the part-time nature of the adult education delivery system, as well as the weight of tradition and a lack of familiarity with recent research in the professional literature.

The lack of evaluation data on instructor training activities may also contribute to the continued reliance on "one-shot" training activities. Much of the current adult education training efforts are based on unsupported assumptions as few programs present any evidence of a lasting impact on teaching behavior or skills. Clearly, evaluation efforts in adult education teacher training are less than adequate and need to be rethought and expanded.

Promising Formats for Providing Training

Information from the K-12 research literature provides some useful suggestions for providing adult education training services. Some of these suggestions are already reflected in training activities for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors. Effective training programs for adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should:

- Be based on systematically-identified needs;

- Involve teacher participants in planning and decision-making;
- Maintain a positive climate for teacher growth and change;
- Shows evidence of systematic decision-making;
- Reflect up-to-date knowledge bases; and
- Reflect continuity and an relationship between different types of activities, all of which should include follow-up training to ensure that skills have been transferred from training to classroom settings.

Workshop series, institutes and coursework at four-year colleges and universities may offer greater promise than single-session training activities that predominate in adult education. These formats provide an opportunity for participants to practice the skills and concepts learned and to receive constructive feedback. A number of other training formats which allow instructors to become actively involved in training activities and which are appropriate for adult education are self-directed learning, peer coaching, and action research. These formats are gradually gaining greater acceptance in the adult education field.

Content of Training Services

One consistent theme of the research literature is that training services should address the adult education workforce's lack of experience with teaching adults. Successful adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be knowledgeable about subject-matter content and pedagogical content as they relate specifically to teaching ABE and ESL participants.

Knowledge of Subject-Matter Content

Basic skill areas in which adult education teachers and volunteers should receive training include reading, writing, mathematics, and language acquisition skills. Significant changes have occurred in the teaching of reading, writing, and mathematics, the K-12 content areas of primary

interest to ABE and ESL. There has been an increased emphasis on meaning and utility, and on the application of these skills to real-life situations.

In recent years there has been an emphasis on higher order thinking skills and problem-solving skills within the basic skill areas. It is not enough for students to learn information that may quickly become obsolete; they must also possess thinking skills that will help them to cope with rapidly changing technology and job requirements. Therefore, adult education teachers and volunteer instructors must also possess the skills necessary to teach these higher order skills.

Second Language Acquisition

The absence of a coherent and research-based set of curricula and instructional approaches impedes the training for teachers of nonliterate and preliterate ESL students. Research in this area is fragmentary and contradictory. For example, there is no agreement on whether reading and writing should be taught separately or together, or on whether reading should precede writing. The only idea which has gained acceptance is that oral skills should be developed prior to and as the basis for reading and writing.

Knowledge of Pedagogical Skills

Adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be knowledgeable in certain pedagogical areas that are related specifically to adult learners. Theories of adult learning acknowledge that there are inherent differences between the adult and child learner. For example, adults are more self-directed than children, have a reservoir of experience, and want learning to be problem-centered. Teachers must see these differences and structure a learning environment that meets the needs of adult learning.

Adult education students often possess special learning needs and have failed in traditional school settings because of undiagnosed learning disabilities. It is important, therefore, for teachers and volunteer instructors to be comfortable with diagnosing learning needs, including

identifying students with learning disabilities. In addition, adult education teachers and volunteer instructors should be sensitive to cultural differences, ensure a positive learning environment, provide students with opportunities for success and offer immediate and continuous feedback to students.

ESL Pedagogical Content

ESL teachers should be familiar with the different approaches for second language teaching, especially the four major approaches used by practitioners over the past several decades. These are: the grammar translation approach, the audiolingual approach, the communication approach, and the humanistic/psychological approach. Specific instructional methods, with which adult education teachers should be familiar, are often associated with each of these approaches.

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